

# Information Coding Methods

Digital Image and Sound Processing

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# Today in the Slides

- ◎ Run-length (RLE) Coding
- ◎ Huffman Coding
- ◎ Lempel-Ziv-Welch (LZW) Coding
- ◎ Arithmetic Coding
- ◎ Data Compression Ratio
- ◎ Coding Applications

# Digital Information

- ⦿ Any form of a digital signal is rendered to a stream of bits
- ⦿ Sequences of bits represent bytes, symbols, numbers, words...
- ⦿ General coding algorithms operate bit sequences regardless of how provided information can be interpreted in audio or image processing

# Digital Information Coding

- ◎ Coding is used to **compress** information or make information unreadable by changing its form
- ◎ **Encoding** converts information to a coded form and **decoding** converts it back to the original form
- ◎ Types of audio and visual information coding:
  - **Lossless** – all information is encoded
  - **Lossy** – only important information is encoded

# Run-length Encoding (RLE)

- ◉ Stores **run length** and data **value** instead of repeating the same value many times
- ◉ **Run** is a sequence in which the same value is repeated several times
- ◉ Effective if **long runs** are present in data stream
- ◉ Example:
  - *Original data: TTTTAAAGTTTT*
  - *Encoded data: 4T3A1G4T*
- ◉ Decoding repeats the value as many times as given in **run length**

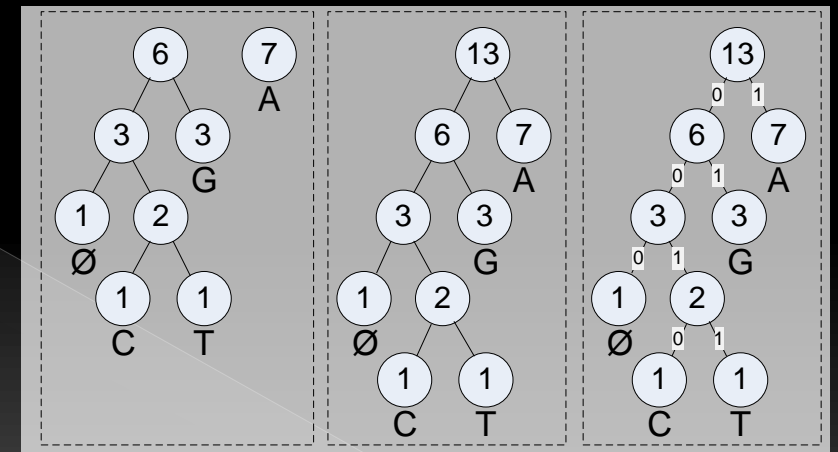
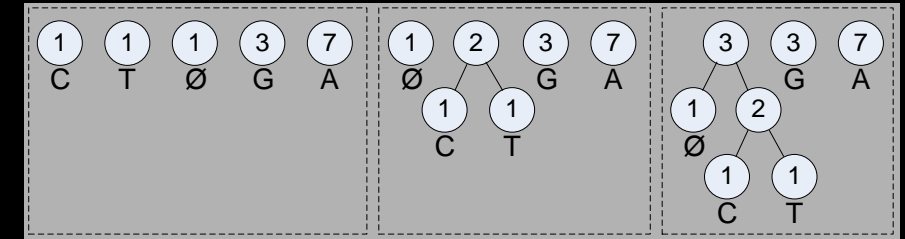
[2]

# Huffman Encoding

- Gives each symbol (data block) a new **codeword**:
  - Frequent symbols are encoded with short codewords
  - Rare symbols are encoded with long codewords
- **Static Huffman encoding** is a three-step procedure:
  1. Counts symbol frequencies
  2. Constructs prefix code (binary **Huffman tree**)
  3. Encodes data
- It is possible to skip first two steps if the symbol occurrence is known and pre-generated or a standard Huffman tree is used

# Huffman Tree Construction

- Huffman tree construction is based on symbol frequency values:
  1. Tree node is constructed from two rarest symbols, its value is equal to the sum of child values;
  2. Tree node is placed in frequency list instead of child nodes, the list is sorted;
  3. 1 and 2 steps are repeated until only one element – Huffman tree – remains in the list.
- Tree leaf represents a symbol and path from a root to a symbol represents its new codeword
  - > Left branch – 0, right branch – 1
  - > Codeword has no identical match at the beginning of any other codeword



A - 1    G - 01    T - 0011  
C - 0010    Ø - 000

# Huffman Decoding

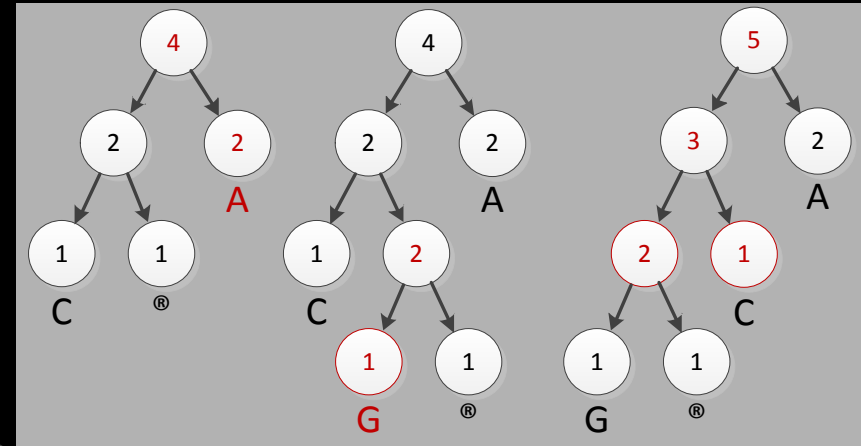
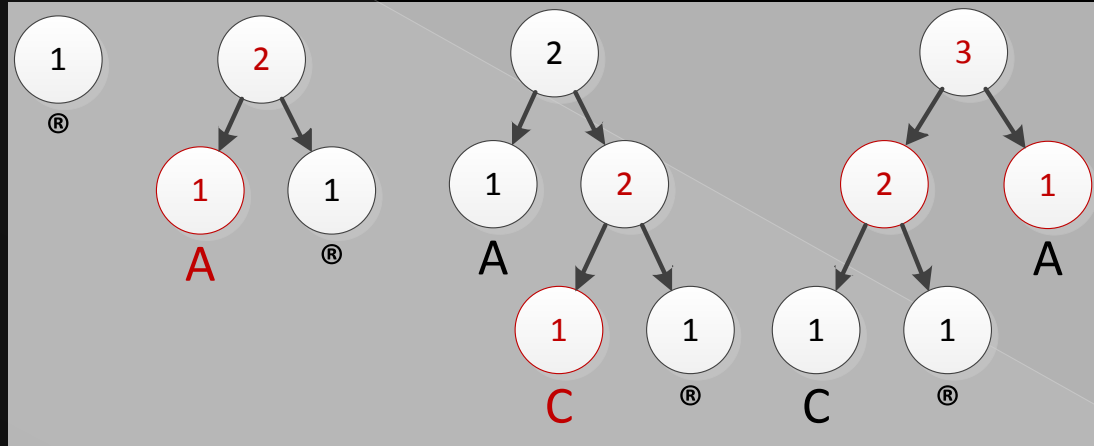
- ⦿ Original codewords (symbols) are recovered by parsing the compressed text with the coding tree
- ⦿ The process begins at the root, it traverses left branch if “0” is read and right branch if “1” is read
- ⦿ An original character is recovered when the tree leaf is reached
- ⦿ The process is terminated when symbol “Ø” referring to the end of data is encountered



# Dynamic Huffman Encoding

- ◎ Static Huffman encoding must **traverse data twice** and **include Huffman tree** into encoded data
- ◎ Dynamic (adaptive) Huffman encoding builds Huffman tree **during coding process**
- ◎ A tree is included into encoded data automatically
  - Artificial character “®”, which represents initial Huffman tree, is used
  - Nodes are sorted in descending (frequency) order

# Dynamic Huffman Encoding



## Example

● Input 104 bits:

A	C	A	G	A	A	T	A	G	A	G	A	Ø
A	C	A	G	A	A	T	A	G	A	G	A	END
code	code	code	code	code	code	code	code	code	code	code	code	code

● Output 61 bit:

A	®	C	A	®	G	A	A	®	T	A	G	A	G	A	®	Ø
A	1	C	1	01	G	1	1	101	T	0	100	0	100	0	111	END
code		code			code				code							code

[3, 5]

# LZW Encoding

- ◎ **Lempel-Ziv-Welch (LZW)** algorithm operates on the basis of the dictionary, which is build during coding process:
  1. Initial dictionary contains all possible strings of length one;
  2. Find the longest string  $W$  in the dictionary that matches the current input;
  3. Emit the dictionary index for  $W$  to output and remove  $W$  from the input;
  4. Add  $W$  followed by the following symbol in the input to the dictionary;
  5. Go to Step 2.

# LZW Encoding

## Example

- ⦿ Input 125 bits
  - > TOBEORNOTTOBEORTOBEORNOT#
- ⦿ Output 96 bits
- ⦿ Dictionary:

Symbol	Binary	Dec
Ø	00000	0
A	00001	1
...	...	...
Z	11010	26

Curr. Seq.	Next Char	Code	Bits	Extended Dictionary	
NULL	T				
T	O	20	10100	27:	TO
O	B	15	01111	28:	OB
B	E	2	00010	29:	BE
E	O	5	00101	30:	EO
O	R	15	01111	31:	OR
R	N	18	10010	32:	RN
N	O	14	001110	33:	NO
...	...	...	...	...	...
RN	O	32	100000	41:	RNO
OT	Ø	34	100010		
		0	000000		

# LZW Decoding

- ⦿ Decoding works by reading a value from the encoded data and outputting the corresponding string from the initialized dictionary
- ⦿ Rebuilds the dictionary in the same way that an encoder does by concatenating symbols
- ⦿ If variable-width codes are being used, the encoder and decoder must be careful to change the width at the same points in the encoded data

# LZW Decoding

## *Example*

- ⦿ The same example from LZW encoding
- ⦿ Decoder is always one step behind an encoder

Bits	Code	Output seq.	Extended Dictionary	
10100	20	T	27: T?	
01111	15	O	28: O?	27: TO
00010	2	B	29: B?	28: OB
00101	5	E	30: E?	29: BE
01111	15	O	31: O?	30: EO
10010	18	R	32: R?	31: OR
001110	14	N	33: N?	32: RN
001111	15	O	34: O?	33: NO
...	...	...	...	...
100000	32	RN	41: RN?	40: EOR
100010	34	OT	42: OT?	41: RNO
000000	0	Ø		

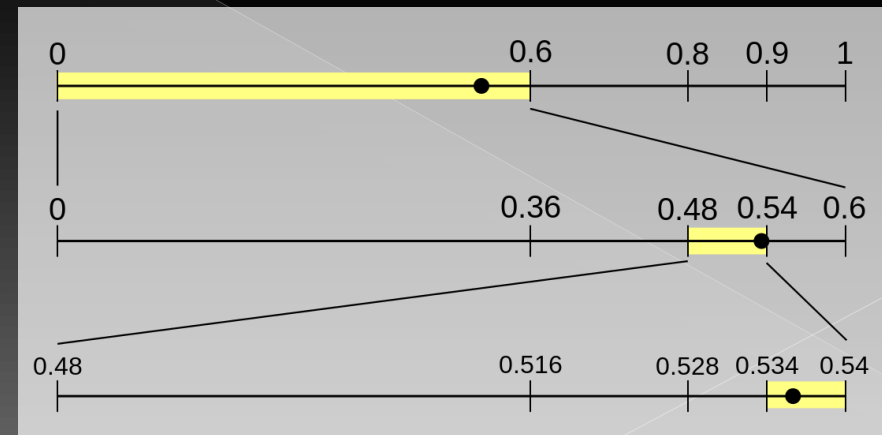
# Arithmetic Encoding

- Frequently used symbols will be stored with less bits than rarely used symbols
- Is based on symbol occurrence probability and encodes the entire message into a single number
- Divides finite calculation range into intervals corresponding to probabilities, while an encoded message is represented by a point

## Example

- > Probabilities:  
A 60%, C 20%, G 10%, Ø 10%
- > Input: AGØ
- > Output: 0.538

[3, 7] [<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=FdMoL3PzmSA>]



# Binary Arithmetic Encoding

- The same idea can be implemented in binary form - Binary Arithmetic Coding (**BAC**)
- Enough bits must be used to obtain required precision
- Lower and higher interval boundaries are recalculated after each input symbol has been encoded:

$$l = l + \frac{(h - l + 1) * F_i}{F_0}$$

$l$  – lower boundary  
 $F_i$  –  $i$ -th symbol  
cumulative frequency

$$h = l + \frac{(h - l + 1) * F_{i-1}}{F_0} - 1$$

$h$  – higher boundary  
 $F_0$  – total cumulative  
frequency



# Binary Arithmetic Encoding

## Example

- Input: ACAGAATAGØ
- 8 bits are used ([0, 255) range)
  - > [0, 255) -A-> [204, 255)
    - Out: 11, interval: [48, 255)
  - > [48, 255) -C-> [96, 231)
    - Out: 10, interval: [96, 231)
  - > [96, 231) -A-> [193, 231)
    - Out: 11, interval: [4, 159)
  - > ...

$f$  – frequency       $F$  – cumulative frequency

		A	C	G	T	Ø
i	0	1	2	3	4	5
F	5	4	3	2	1	0
f	0	1	1	1	1	1

		A	C	G	T	Ø
i	0	1	2	3	4	5
F	6	4	3	2	1	0
f	0	2	1	1	1	1

		A	C	G	T	Ø
i	0	1	2	3	4	5
F	7	5	3	2	1	0
f	0	2	2	1	1	1

[3, 7]

# Binary Arithmetic Decoding

- Decoding is performed in reverse to encoding process
- Window size (bit count of currently analyzed value  $x$ ) is the same as for encoding
- Decoded symbol is the first symbol that:

$$F_i > \frac{(x - l + 1) * F_0 - 1}{h - l + 1}$$

$l$  – lower boundary

$h$  – higher boundary

$x$  – analyzed value

$F_i$  –  $i$ -th symbol  
cumulative frequency

$F_0$  – total cumulative  
frequency

- $l$  and  $h$  are updated in the same way as in an encoder

[3, 7]

# Binary Arithmetic Decoding

## Example

⦿ Input: 1110110011101111010000...

- > Value 236 = 11101100, F = 4
- > [0, 255) -A-> [204, 255)
  - out: A, shift: 2, interval: [48, 255)
- > Value 179 = 10110011, F = 3
- > [48, 255) -C-> [152, 185)
  - Out: C, shift: 2, interval: [96, 231)
- > Value 206 = 11001110, F = 5
- > [96, 231) -A-> [193, 231)
  - Out: A, shift: 2, interval: [4, 159)
- > ...

		A	C	G	T	Ø
i	0	1	2	3	4	5
F	5	4	3	2	1	0
f	0	1	1	1	1	1

		A	C	G	T	Ø
i	0	1	2	3	4	5
F	6	4	3	2	1	0
f	0	2	1	1	1	1

		A	C	G	T	Ø
i	0	1	2	3	4	5
F	7	5	3	2	1	0
f	0	2	2	1	1	1

[3, 7]

# Data Compression Ratio

- ⦿ The efficiency of compression is defined by **data compression ratio**
- ⦿ Lossless compression preserves all the information, but, in general, it does not achieve compression ratio much better than 2:1
- ⦿ Compression algorithms which provide higher ratios either incur very large overheads or work only for specific data
- ⦿ Lossy compression can achieve much higher compression ratios by removing information
- ⦿ Compression ratio of at least 50:1 is needed to get 1080i video into a 20 Mbit/s MPEG transport stream

$$CR = \frac{\text{Uncompressed size}}{\text{Compressed size}}$$

# General Coding Algorithm Applications

- ◎ **RLE** is used in: GIF, JPEG
- ◎ **Huffman coding** is used in: JPEG, MP3
- ◎ **LZW coding** is applied in: GIF, TIFF, PDF
- ◎ **Arithmetic coding** is used in: Context-adaptive BAC in MPEG AVC and HEVC

# Interesting Facts

- LZW has many variants like LZ77, LZ78, LZMA, LZSS, LZJB, etc., which include various modifications and adaptations for specific data sets
- DEFLATE is an efficient synthesis of LZW and Huffman algorithm that is used in PNG and ZIP formats
- Arithmetic coding is the generalization of Huffman coding and can often achieve better compress ratios
- AC and Huffman are considered entropy encoding compression schemes that are independent of the specific characteristics of the medium

# References

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